

1.1. Genesis of the Crystallographic Information File

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1.1.1. Prologue

Progress in science depends crucially on the ability to find and share theories, observations and the results of experiments. The efficient exchange of information within and across scientific disciplines is therefore of fundamental importance. The rapid growth in the use of computers and networks over the past half century and in the use of the World Wide Web over the past decade have brought remarkable improvements in communications among scientists. Such communications are most effective when there is a common language. The English language has become the standard means of expression of ideas and theories; increasingly, the exchange of data requires the computer equivalent of such a *lingua franca*. It was with considerable foresight that the International Union of Crystallography (IUCr) in 1990 adopted a data-handling approach based on universal file concepts. At that time this was considered to be a radical idea. The approach adopted by the IUCr is known as the Crystallographic Information File (CIF). This volume of *International Tables for Crystallography* describes the CIF approach, the associated definition of CIF data items within dictionaries, and handling procedures, applications and software.

In this opening chapter, we give a historical perspective on the reasons why the CIF approach was adopted and how, over the past decade, CIF applications have evolved.

CIF is the most fully developed and mature of the various universal file approaches available today. It combines flexibility and simplicity of expression with a lean syntax. It has an unsurpassed ability to express ‘hard’ scientific data unambiguously using extensive dictionaries (ontologies) of relevant terms. It has proved to be remarkably well suited to the publication and archiving of small-unit-cell crystallographic structures. What was a radical idea in 1990 has today become the dominant mode of expression of scientific data in this domain.

The CIF data model provided the key to the internal restructuring of data managed by the Protein Data Bank in its transition from an archive to a database. The CIF approach is being tested in an increasing number of domains. In some cases, it may well become as successful as it has been for small-molecule crystallography. In other cases, the syntax will be unsuitable, but yet the conceptual discipline of agreed ontologies will still be required. Here, the experience of developing the CIF dictionaries may be carried across into different file formats and modes of expression.

Nowadays, informatics is a rapidly evolving field, in which everything is obsolete almost as soon as it is created. Yet there is a responsibility on today’s scientists to preserve data and pass them on to the next generation. CIF was developed not only as a data-exchange mechanism, but also as an archival format, and considerable care has been taken over the past decade and more to keep it a stable and smoothly evolving approach. Some points of detail have been modified or superseded in practice. Other changes will

necessarily occur as the approach evolves to meet the changing demands of an evolving science. Readers should therefore be aware of the need to consult the IUCr website (<http://www.iucr.org/iucr-top/cif>) for the latest versions of, or successors to, the data dictionaries and the software packages described in this volume. However, the basic concepts have already been shown to be remarkably effective and durable. This volume should therefore provide an invaluable reference for those working with CIF and related universal file approaches.

The success of any data-exchange approach depends on its efficiency and flexibility. It must cope with the increasing volume and complexity of data generated by the computing ‘information explosion’. This growth challenges conventional criteria for measuring exchange and storage efficiency based on high data-compression factors. Today’s fast, cheap magnetic and chip technologies make bulk volume a secondary consideration compared with extensibility and portability of data-management processes. Most importantly, improvements in computing technology continue to generate new approaches to harnessing semantic information contained within data collections and to promoting new strategies for knowledge management.

The basis for an efficient information-exchange process is mutually agreed rules for the supplier and the receiver, *i.e.* the establishment of an exchange protocol. This protocol needs to be established at several levels. At the first level, there must be predetermined ways that data (*i.e.* numbers, characters or text) are arranged in the storage medium. These are the organizational rules that define the syntax or the format of data. There must also be a clear understanding of the meaning of individual data items so that they can be correctly identified, accessed and reused by others. At an even higher level, a protocol may also provide rules for expressing the relationships between the data, as this can lead to automatic processes for validating and applying the data values.

These higher levels provide the *semantic* knowledge needed for the rigorous identification and validation of transmitted and stored data. One may consider the analogy of reading this paragraph in English. To do this we must first be able to recognize the individual words, comprehend their meaning (if necessary with the use of an English dictionary) and understand all of this within the context of sentence construction. As with data, the arrangement of component words is based on a predetermined grammatical syntax, and their individual meaning (as defined in a dictionary or elsewhere), coupled with their contextual function (as nouns, verbs, adjectives *etc.*), leads to the full comprehension of a word sequence as semantic information.

1.1.2. Past approaches to data exchange

The crystallographic community, along with many other scientific disciplines, has long adhered to the philosophy that experimental data and results should be routinely archived to facilitate long-term knowledge retention and access. An early approach to this, recommended by IUCr and other journals, was for authors to deposit data as hard copy (*i.e.* ink on paper) with the British Library Lending Division. Retaining good records is fundamental to reproducing

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1.1. GENESIS OF THE CRYSTALLOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FILE

scientific results. However, the sheer volume of diffraction data needed to repeat a crystallographic study precludes these from publication, and has led in the past to relatively *ad hoc* procedures for depositing supplementary data in local or centralized archives. Typically in the past, only the crystal and structure model parameters were published in the refereed paper and the underpinning diffraction information had to be archived elsewhere. Because the archived data were usually stored as paper in various unregulated formats, considerable information about the experiment and structure-refinement parameters was never retained. Moreover, the archiving of supplementary data *via* postal services was very slow and labour-intensive; equally, the recovery of deposited data was difficult, with information supplied as either a photocopy of the original deposition or an image taken from a microfiche.

Prior to 1970, when less than 9000 structures were deposited with the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre, data sets were still small enough to make these deposition and retrieval approaches feasible, albeit tedious. Even so, records show that very few archived data sets were ever retrieved for later use. The rationale of data storage changed radically in the 1980s. The increasing role of computers, automatic diffractometers and phase-solving direct methods in crystallographic studies led to a rapid acceleration in the number and size of structures determined and published. This was the period when fast minicomputers became affordable for laboratories, and the consequent demand for the electronic storage and exchange of information grew exponentially. Typical data-archival practices changed from using paper to magnetic tapes, as these now became the least expensive and most efficient means of storing data.

1.1.3. Card-image formats

Although the interchange of scientific information depends implicitly on an agreed data format, it remains independent of whether the transmission medium is paper tape, punched card, magnetic tape, computer chip or the Internet. Crystallography has employed countless data-exchange approaches and formats over the past 60 years. Prior to the advent of computers, the standard approach involved the exchange of typed tables of coordinates and structure factors with descriptive headers. In the 1950s and 1960s, as computers became the dominant generators of data, the transfer of data between laboratories was still relatively uncommon. When it was necessary, the Hollerith card formats of commonly used programs, such as *ORFLS* (Busing *et al.*, 1962) and *XRAY* (Stewart, 1963), usually sufficed. Even when magnetic tape drives became common and were standardized (mainly to the 1/2-inch 2400-foot reel), the 80-column 'card-image' formats of these programs remained the most popular data exchange and deposition approach.

As the storage and transporting of electronic data became easier and cheaper, structural information was increasingly deposited directly in databases such as the Cambridge Structural Database (CSD; Allen, 2002) and the Protein Data Bank (PDB; Bernstein *et al.*, 1977). The CSD and PDB simplified these depositions by using standard layouts such as the ASER, BCCAB and PDB formats. Both the PDB and CSD used, and indeed still use as a backup deposition mode, fixed formats with 80-character records and identifier codes. Examples of these format styles are shown in Figs. 1.1.3.1 and 1.1.3.2.

The card-image approach, involving a rigid preordained syntax, survived for more than two decades because it was simple, and the suite of data types used to describe crystal structures remained relatively static.

```

HEADER  PLANT SEED PROTEIN                30-APR-81  1CRN  1CRND  1
COMPND  CRAMBIN
SOURCE  ABYSSINIAN CABBAGE (CRAMBE ABYSSINICA) SEED
AUTHOR  W.A.HENDRICKSON,M.M.TEETER
REVDAT  5 16-APR-87 1CRND  1  HEADER  1CRND  2
REVDAT  4 04-MAR-85 1CRNC  1  REMARK  1CRNC  3
REVDAT  3 30-SEP-83 1CRNB  1  REVDAT  1CRNB  1
REVDAT  2 03-DEC-81 1CRNA  1  SHEET  1CRNB  2
REVDAT  1 28-JUL-81 1CRN  0
REMARK  1
REMARK  1 REFERENCE 1
REMARK  1 AUTH  M.M.TEETER
REMARK  1 TITL  WATER STRUCTURE OF A HYDROPHOBIC PROTEIN AT ATOMIC
REMARK  1 TITL 2 RESOLUTION. PENTAGON RINGS OF WATER MOLECULES IN
REMARK  1 TITL 3 CRYSTALS OF CRAMBIN
REMARK  1 REF  PROC.NAT.ACAD.SCI.USA  V. 81 6014 1984 1CRNC  7
REMARK  1 REFPN ASTM PNAS6 US ISSN 0027-8424 040 1CRNC  8
REMARK  1 REFERENCE 2
REMARK  1 AUTH  W.A.HENDRICKSON,M.M.TEETER
REMARK  1 TITL  STRUCTURE OF THE HYDROPHOBIC PROTEIN CRAMBIN
REMARK  1 TITL 2 DETERMINED DIRECTLY FROM THE ANOMALOUS SCATTERING
REMARK  1 TITL 3 OF SULPHUR
REMARK  1 REF  NATURE  V. 290 107 1981 1CRN  13
REMARK  1 REFPN ASTM NATUAS UK ISSN 0028-0836 006 1CRN  14
REMARK  1 REFERENCE 3
REMARK  1 AUTH  M.M.TEETER,W.A.HENDRICKSON
REMARK  1 TITL  HIGHLY ORDERED CRYSTALS OF THE PLANT SEED PROTEIN
REMARK  1 TITL 2 CRAMBIN
REMARK  1 REF  J.MOL.BIOL.  V. 127 219 1979 1CRN  19
REMARK  1 REFPN ASTM JMOBAK UK ISSN 0022-2836 070 1CRN  20
SEQRES  1 46 THR THR CYS CYS PRO SER ILE VAL ALA ARG SER ASN PHE 1CRN  51
SEQRES  2 46 ASN VAL CYS ARG LEU PRO GLY THR PRO GLU ALA ILE CYS 1CRN  52
SEQRES  3 46 ALA THR TYR THR GLY CYS ILE ILE ILE PRO GLY ALA THR 1CRN  53
SEQRES  4 46 CYS PRO GLY ASP TYR ALA ASN 1CRN  54
HELIX  1 H1 ILE 7 PRO 19 1 3/10 CONFORMATION RES 17,19 1CRN  55
HELIX  2 H2 GLU 23 THR 30 1 DISTORTED 3/10 AT RES 30 1CRN  56
SHEET  1 S1 2 THR 1 CYS 4 0 1CRNA  4
SHEET  2 S1 2 CYS 32 ILE 35 -1 1CRN  58
TURN  1 T1 PRO 41 TYR 44 1CRN  59
SSBOND 1 CYS 3 CYS 40 1CRN  60
SSBOND 2 CYS 4 CYS 32 1CRN  61
SSBOND 3 CYS 16 CYS 26 1CRN  62
CRYST1 40.960 18.650 22.520 90.00 90.77 90.00 P 21 2 1CRN  63
ATOM  1 N THR 1 17.047 14.099 3.625 1.00 13.79 1CRN  70
ATOM  2 CA THR 1 16.967 12.784 4.338 1.00 10.80 1CRN  71
ATOM  3 C THR 1 15.685 12.755 5.133 1.00 9.19 1CRN  72
ATOM  4 O THR 1 15.268 13.825 5.594 1.00 9.85 1CRN  73
ATOM  5 CB THR 1 18.170 12.703 5.337 1.00 13.02 1CRN  74
ATOM  6 OG1 THR 1 19.334 12.829 4.463 1.00 15.06 1CRN  75
ATOM  7 CG2 THR 1 18.150 11.546 6.304 1.00 14.23 1CRN  76
ATOM  8 N THR 2 15.115 11.555 5.265 1.00 7.81 1CRN  77
ATOM  9 CA THR 2 13.856 11.469 6.066 1.00 8.31 1CRN  78
ATOM  10 C THR 2 14.164 10.785 7.379 1.00 5.80 1CRN  79
CONNECT 20 19 282 1CRN  398
CONNECT 26 25 229 1CRN  399
CONNECT 116 115 188 1CRN  400
CONNECT 188 116 187 1CRN  401
CONNECT 229 26 228 1CRN  402
CONNECT 282 20 281 1CRN  403
END 1CRN  405

```

Fig. 1.1.3.1. An abbreviated example of a PDB format file.

1.1.4. The Standard Crystallographic File Structure (SCFS)

By the 1980s, the many different fixed formats used to exchange data electronically had become a significant complication for journals and databases. Because of this, the IUCr Commissions for Crystallographic Data and Computing formed a joint Working Party which was asked to recommend a standard format for the exchange and retention of crystallographic data. They proposed a partially fixed format in which key words on each line identified blocks of data containing items in a specific order. This format was the Standard Crystallographic File Structure (Brown, 1988). An example of an SCFS file is shown in Fig. 1.1.4.1.

The effectiveness of the SCFS format approach was curtailed because its release coincided with the arrival of powerful minicomputers, such as the VAX780, in crystallographic laboratories. This led to a period of enormous change in crystallographic computing, in which new data types and file formats proliferated. It was also a time when automatic diffractometers became standard equipment in laboratories and the development of new crystallographic software packages flourished. The fixed-format design of the SCFS was unable to adapt easily to these continually changing data requirements, and this eventually led to a proliferation of SCFS versions.

1. HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

```

?BAWGEL
#ADATE 820705
#COMPND bis(Benzene)-chromium bromide
#FORMUL C12 H12 Cr1 1+,Br1 1-
#AUTHOR A.L.Spek,A.J.M.Duisenberg
#JRNL 189,10,1531,1981
#CREF msdb 14.74.003 nbsid 532193 batch 53 cdvol 6
#CLASS 1/74
#SYSCAT sys 0 cat 3
#CONN El= Cr 2 Br 14 V= 1 2 Ch= + 2 Ch= - 14
Res= Plot= 1 B= 5 1-3 1-4 3-6 4-7 5-8 5-9 6-10 7-10 8-11 9-12 11-13 12-13
B= 9 1-2-5
Res= Plot= 1 14
#DIAGRAM
  469  151  374  202  469  248  554  103  272  248  556  299
  640  152  186  296  272  151  640  250  101  247  185  100
  100  149  100  50  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
#CELL a 9.753(6) b 9.316(3) c 11.941(8) z 4 cent 1 sg Fmmm
#SYMM x,y,z
x,1/2+y,1/2+z
1/2+x,y,1/2+z
1/2+x,1/2+y,z
-x,y,z
-x,1/2+y,1/2+z
1/2-x,y,1/2+z
1/2-x,1/2+y,z
x,-y,z
x,1/2-y,1/2+z
1/2+x,-y,1/2+z
1/2+x,1/2-y,z
-x,-y,z
-x,1/2-y,1/2+z
1/2-x,-y,1/2+z
1/2-x,1/2-y,z
#DENSITY dx 1.764
#UNIS int 3 sigcc 3
#RFACT R= 0.0540.
#RADIUS C 0.68 H 0.23 Br 1.21 Cr 1.35
#TOLER 0.40
#ATOM Cr1 0.0 0.0 0.0
Br1 0.0 0.0 0.50000
C1 0.06900 0.12800 0.13400
C2 0.13900 0.0 0.13400
H1 0.09300 0.20400 0.12500
H2 0.19800 0.0 0.13000
#BOND Cr1 C1 2.100
Cr1 C2 2.090
C1 C1* 1.340
C1 C2 1.370
C1 H1 0.760
C2 H2 0.580
#MDATE 901205
#END

```

Fig. 1.1.3.2. An example of a CSD BCCAB format file.

1.1.5. The impact of networking on crystallography

The growth in power of individual minicomputers inevitably helped the development of computational techniques in crystallography. Yet perhaps a more profound development was networking – the ability to exchange electronic data directly between computers. The laborious procedures for transferring information by manual keystroke or exchange of card decks and magnetic tapes were replaced by error-free programmatic procedures. Initially, data could flow easily between computers in the same laboratory; then colleagues could exchange data between scientific departments on the same campus; and before long experimental results, programs and general communications were flowing freely across national and international networks.

During the 1960s, networking was *ad hoc* and proprietary, and rarely extended effectively outside the laboratory. By the 1970s, however, a few standard networking protocols were becoming established. These included uucp, which promoted the growth of dial-up networking between university campuses, and TCP/IP, the transport protocol underlying the ARPANET, that would eventually give rise to the dominant Internet with which we are familiar today. The potential for improving the practice of crystallography through the ease of communications afforded by computer networks was very clear. However, the technology was still costly and required much effort and expertise to implement. Even towards the end of the decade, a meeting of protein crystallographers concluded (Freer & Stewart, 1979) that

```

TITLE                                00001
*p6122                                CIFIO 05-Mar87      p6122      00002
                                         00003
SG NAME                                00004
LATT NP                                00005
SYST HEXAGONAL                        00006
BRAV HEXAGONAL                        00007
HALL p_61_2_(0_0_-1)                 00008
HERM p_61_2_2                          00009
*EOS                                    00010
                                         00011
SYMMETRY R11 2 3      T1      R21 2 3      T2      R31 2 3      T3      00012
SYOP 1 0 0 .00000000  0 1 0 .00000000  0 0 1 .00000000  1      00013
SYOP -1 0 0 .00000000  0-1 0 .00000000  0 0 1 .50000000  2      00014
SYOP 0-1 0 .00000000  -1 0 0 .00000000  0 0-1 .83333330  3      00015
SYOP 0 1 0 .00000000  1 0 0 .00000000  0 0-1 .33333330  4      00016
SYOP -1-1 0 .00000000  0-1 0 .00000000  0 0-1 .00000000  5      00017
SYOP -1 1 0 .00000000  0 1 0 .00000000  0 0-1 .50000000  6      00018
SYOP 1 0 0 .00000000  -1-1 0 .00000000  0 0-1 .1666670  7      00019
SYOP -1 0 0 .00000000  -1 1 0 .00000000  0 0-1 .6666670  8      00020
SYOP 0-1 0 .00000000  1-1 0 .00000000  0 0 1 .33333330  9      00021
SYOP 0 1 0 .00000000  -1 1 0 .00000000  0 0 1 .83333330  10     00022
SYOP -1-1 0 .00000000  1 0 0 .00000000  0 0 1 .1666670  11     00023
SYOP -1 1 0 .00000000  -1 0 0 .00000000  0 0 1 .6666670  12     00024
*EOS                                    00025
                                         00026
FORMULA EL NUM                         00036
FORL s .50000o .50000c 1.0000        00037
*EOS                                    00038
                                         00039
CONDITIONS                             00040
CELLPAREX .7107 566.00                00041
INT PAREX .7107 566.00 .147 .681 92   00042
HKL PARE 0 2 0 4 0 12                00043
EQUIVPARE 92 525                      00044
*EOS                                    00045
                                         00046
ATOMS NAME X U11 Y U22 Z U33 U U12 P U13 U23 MUL AT DT 00052
UALL .03500                            00053
ATCO s .20140 .79860 .91667 1.00000 6 s 200054
ATCE s .00040 .00040 .00000 .00000 00055
UIJ s .04100 .04100 .01000 .02500 -.00400 -.00400 00056
UIJE s .00800 .00800 .00700 .00700 .00500 .00500 00057
ATCO o .50100 .50100 .66667 1.00000 6 o 200058
ATCE o .00300 .00300 .00000 .00000 00059
UIJ o .08900 .08900 .09000 .06300 .00900 -.00900 00060
UIJE o .01800 .01800 .02000 .01900 .00800 .00800 00061
ATCO c 1 .49200 .09700 .03780 1.00000 12 c 200062
ATCE c 1 .00300 .00300 .00110 .00000 00063
UIJ c 1 .03170 .03170 .03170 .01585 .00000 .00000 00064
UIJE c 1 .00000 .00000 .00000 .00000 .00000 .00000 00065
*EOS                                    00066
                                         00067
CELL DIMENSIONS A B C ALPHA BETA GAMMA Z 00068
CELLPARE 8.5300 8.5300 20.3700 90.0000 90.0000 120.0000 12.000069
ERRSPARE .0100 .0100 .0100 .0100 .0100 .0100 00070
VOL PARE 1283.571 3.0775 .5595 00071
PHYSPARE 566.0000 00072
*EOS                                    00073
                                         00074
END                                     00081

```

Fig. 1.1.4.1. An abbreviated example of a Standard Crystallographic File Structure (SCFS) format file.

The possibility and usefulness of establishing a computer network for communication among crystallographic laboratories was discussed. The implications for rapid updating and the ease with which programs and data could be transferred among the groups was clearly recognized by all present; however, immediate implementation of a network was not deemed practical by a majority of the participants.

By the mid-1980s, the establishment of a global computer network was well under way. There was still some diversity of transmission protocols on an international scale: uucp, BITNET and X.25 Coloured Book protocols were still competing with TCP/IP, so that communication between different networks had to be managed through gateways. Nevertheless, there was sufficient standardization that it was feasible to communicate with colleagues world-wide by e-mail, to transfer files by ftp and to log in to remote computers by telnet. E-mail, in particular, allowed for the rapid transmission of ASCII text in an arbitrary format. In many respects, this established a goal for other exchange formats to achieve. The establishment of anonymous ftp sites permitted the free exchange of software and data to any user; no special privileges on the host computer were needed. Such availability of electronic information fitted particularly well with the scientific ethic of open exchange of information.

1.1. GENESIS OF THE CRYSTALLOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FILE

By the early 1990s, TCP/IP and the Internet dominated international networking. The practices of open exchange of information were developed through a number of initiatives. *Gopher* (Anklesaria *et al.*, 1993) provided a general mechanism to access material categorized and published from a computerized information store. *WAIS* (Kahle, 1991), a wide-area information server application designed to service queries conforming to the Z39.50 information retrieval protocol (ANSI/NISO, 1995), provided an effective distributed search engine. The rapid proliferation of new techniques for searching and retrieving information from the Internet was capped in the mid-1990s by the rapid growth in sites implementing hypertext servers (Berners-Lee, 1989). The World Wide Web had become a reality.

The increasing access to global network facilities during the 1980s led to a growing interest among crystallographers in submitting manuscripts to journals electronically, especially for small-molecule structure studies. The Australian delegation at the 1987 General Assembly of the XIVth IUCr Congress in Perth proposed that IUCr journals (specifically *Acta Crystallographica*) should be able to accept manuscripts submitted electronically. It was argued that this would reduce effort on the part of the authors and the journal office in preparation and transcription of manuscripts, and as a consequence reduce costs and transcription errors and simplify data-validation approaches. The acceptance of this General Assembly resolution led to the creation of a Working Party on Crystallographic Information (WPCI), which had as its mandate the investigation of possible approaches to enable the electronic submission of crystallographic research publications.

1.1.6. The Working Party on Crystallographic Information (WPCI)

The WPCI first convened at the 1988 ECM11 conference in Vienna. In the discussions leading up to this meeting, it was widely appreciated that electronic submissions to journals and databases involved data types (*e.g.* manuscript texts, graphical diagrams, the full suite of crystallographic data) that were beyond those accommodated within the SCFS format promoted by the IUCr Data and Computing Commissions. Consequently, it was suggested at the Vienna meeting that a general and extensible universal file approach, similar to the recently developed Self-defining Text Archive and Retrieval (STAR) File format (Hall, 1991; Hall & Spadaccini, 1994), might also be suitable for crystallographic data applications.

At this meeting, it was decided that a WPCI working group, led by Syd Hall, should investigate the development of a universal file protocol that would be suitable for crystallographic data needs. Other universal formats existed, such as ASN.1 (ISO, 2002), which was used for data communications, JCAMP-DX (McDonald & Wilks, 1988), which was used for archiving infrared spectra, and the Standard Molecular Data (SMD) format (Barnard, 1990), which was used for the global exchange of chemical structure data. These were considered relatively inefficient for expressing the repetitive data lists commonly used in crystallography. The working group eventually proposed a Crystallographic Information File (CIF) format which had a syntax similar to, but simpler than, the STAR File. Of particular importance because of the rapid changes taking place with data types, the CIF approach provided a very flexible and extensible file structure in which any type of text or numerical data could be arranged in any order. The typical data structure of a CIF is illustrated in Fig. 1.1.6.1, using the same data as presented in the PDB file of Fig. 1.1.3.1. Similarly, Fig. 1.1.6.2 shows the data in the BCCAB file of Fig. 1.1.3.2 in CIF format.

```

data_crmbin
_entry.id                                1CRN

_audit.creation_date                      1993-04-21
_audit.creation_method                    'manual editing of PDB entry'
_audit.update_record

; 1993-04-21 Original PDB entry history recorded here for completeness.
 30-apr-81 deposition.
 28-jul-81 lcrn 0
 03-dec-81 correct residue number on strand 1 of sheet s1.
 30-sep-83 insert revdat records
 04-mar-85 insert new publication as reference and renumber
 16-apr-87 change deposition date from 31-apr-81 to 30-apr-81.
;
loop_
_struct.entry_id
_struct.title
 1CRN 'Crmbin from Abyssinian cabbage (Crambe abyssinica) seed'
loop_
_citation.id
_citation.year
_citation.journal_abbrev
_citation.journal_volume
_citation.page_first
_citation_journal_id_ASTM
_citation_journal_id_ISSN
_citation_title
primary 1984 Biochemistry 23 6796
? 0006-2960
; Raman spectroscopy of homologous plant toxins: crmbin and alpha 1- and
beta-purothionin secondary structures, disulfide conformation, and
tyrosine environment
;
1 1984 Proc.Nat.Acad.Sci.USA 81 6014
pnasa6 0027-8424
; Water structure of a hydrophobic protein at atomic resolution. Pentagon
rings of water molecules in crystals of crmbin
;
2 1981 Nature 280 107
natuas 0028-0836
; Structure of the hydrophobic protein crmbin determined directly
from the anomalous scattering of sulphur
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_citation_author.name
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1 'Teeter, M.M.'
2 'Hendrickson, W.A.' 2 'Teeter, M.M.'
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_entity.type
_entity.details
1 polymer 'Protein chain: *'
2 non-polymer 'het group EOH'
loop_
_entity_poly_seq.entity_id
_entity_poly_seq.num
_entity_poly_seq.mon_id
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1 6 SER 1 7 ILE 1 8 VAL 1 9 ALA 1 10 ARG
1 11 SER 1 12 ASN 1 13 PHE 1 14 ASN 1 15 VAL
#.....sequence data omitted for brevity

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_cell.length_b 18.650
_cell.length_c 22.520
_cell.angle_alpha 90.00
_cell.angle_beta 90.77
_cell.angle_gamma 90.00
_symmetry.space_group_name_H-M 'P 1 21 1'

loop_
_atom.type.symbol
_atom.type.description
_atom.type.number_in_cell
C carbon 404 N nitrogen 112 O oxygen 128 S sulfur 12 H hydrogen ?

loop_
_atom_site.label_seq_id
_atom_site.type_symbol
_atom_site.label_atom_id
_atom_site.label_comp_id
_atom_site.label_asym_id
_atom_site.auth_seq_id
_atom_site.label_alt_id
_atom_site.Cartn_x
_atom_site.Cartn_y
_atom_site.Cartn_z
_atom_site.occupancy
_atom_site.B_iso_or_equiv
_atom_site.label_entity_id
_atom_site.id
1 N N THR * 1 . 17.047 14.099 3.625 1.00 13.79 1 1
1 C CA THR * 1 . 16.967 12.784 4.338 1.00 10.80 1 2
1 C C THR * 1 . 15.685 12.755 5.133 1.00 9.19 1 3
1 O O THR * 1 . 15.268 13.825 5.594 1.00 9.85 1 4
1 C CB THR * 1 . 18.170 12.703 5.337 1.00 13.02 1 5
1 O OG1 THR * 1 . 19.334 12.829 4.463 1.00 15.06 1 6
1 C CG2 THR * 1 . 18.150 11.546 6.304 1.00 14.23 1 7
#.....atom-site data omitted for brevity

```

Fig. 1.1.6.1. Example 1 of a CIF (using the same data as shown in Fig. 1.1.3.1).

1. HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

```
data_BAWGEL
_audit_creation_date      93-05-24
_audit_creation_method    manual_conversion_of_ccdc_file
_audit_update_record
; 82-07-05  CCDC entry created from journal data
              A.L.Spek,A.J.M.Duisenberg (1981) 189,10,1531
93-05-21  Received file from Owen Johnson, CCDC.
93-05-24  Initial conversion of the file to CIF/MIF format.
;
_chemical_name_systematic  'bis(Benzene)-chromium bromide'
_chemical_formula_moiety   'C12 H12 Cr1 1+,Br1 1-'
;
_cell_length_a            9.735(6)
_cell_length_b            9.316(3)
_cell_length_c            11.941(8)
_cell_angle_alpha         90
_cell_angle_beta          90
_cell_angle_gamma         90
_cell_formula_units_Z     4
;
_symmetry_space_group_name_H-M  Fmmm

loop_
_symmetry_equiv_pos_as_xyz
  x,y,z  x,1/2+y,1/2+z  1/2+x,y,1/2+z  1/2+x,1/2+y,z  -x,y,z  -x,1/2+y,1/2+z
  1/2-x,y,1/2+z  1/2-x,1/2+y,z  x,-y,z  x,1/2-y,1/2+z  1/2+x,-y,1/2+z
  1/2+x,1/2-y,z  -x,-y,z  -x,1/2-y,1/2+z  1/2-x,-y,1/2+z  1/2-x,1/2-y,z

loop_
_atom_type_symbol
_atom_type_radius_bond
              C 0.68  H 0.23  Br 1.21  Cr 1.35

_exptl_crystal_density_meas  1.764
_refine_ls_R_factor_obs      0.0540
_reflns_observed_criterion   3sigma(I)

loop_
_atom_site_label
_atom_site_fract_x
_atom_site_fract_y
_atom_site_fract_z
              Cr1 0.0    0.0    0.0
              Br1 0.0    0.0    0.50000
              C1  0.06900 0.12800 0.13400
              C2  0.13900 0.0    0.13400
              H1  0.09300 0.20400 0.12500
              H2  0.19800 0.0    0.13000

loop_
_geom_bond_atom_site_label_1
_geom_bond_atom_site_label_2
_geom_bond_distance
_geom_bond_site_symmetry_1
_geom_bond_site_symmetry_2
              Cr1 C1 2.100 . .
              Cr1 C2 2.090 . .
              C1 C1 1.340 . 5_555
              C1 C2 1.370 . .
              C1 H1 0.760 . .
              C2 H2 0.580 . .
```

Fig. 1.1.6.2. Example 2 of a CIF (using the same data as shown in Fig.1.1.3.2).

1.1.7. The Crystallographic Information File

As outlined in Section 1.1.6, the working group commissioned by the WPCI set out to establish an exchange protocol suitable for submitting crystallographic data to journals and databases, and this resulted in the development of the CIF syntax. At the same time, the group was also asked to form a list of those data items considered to be essential in a manuscript submitted to *Acta Crystallographica*. The data items originally recommended are listed in Fig. 1.1.7.1.

The syntax of a CIF (a detailed description is given in Chapter 2.2) was intentionally a simple subset of the STAR File syntax (see Chapter 2.1 for details). This simplification was considered important for its easy implementation in existing crystallographic software packages – clearly a primary goal for any format that was to be widely available for submitting data to journals and databases.

A compilation of data names referring to specific quantities or concepts in a crystal-structure determination was drawn up. This compilation included the items already identified as necessary for publication and many more besides. As a list of standard tags intended for unambiguous use, the collection was known from the outset as a *dictionary* of data names.

```
# The following CIF data names encompass the IUCr Journals Commission
# requirements for the reporting of a small-molecule structure in Acta
# Crystallographica, Section C

_chemical_compound_source
_chemical_formula_sum
_chemical_formula_moiety
_chemical_formula_weight
_symmetry_cell_setting
_symmetry_space_group_name_H-M
_cell_length_a
_cell_length_b
_cell_length_c
_cell_angle_alpha
_cell_angle_beta
_cell_angle_gamma
_cell_volume
_cell_formula_units_Z
_exptl_crystal_density_diffn
_exptl_crystal_density_meas
_exptl_crystal_density_method
_diffn_radiation_type
_diffn_radiation_wavelength
_cell_measurement_reflns_used
_cell_measurement_theta_min
_cell_measurement_theta_max
_exptl_absorpt_coefficient_mu
_cell_measurement_temperature
_exptl_crystal_description
_exptl_crystal_colour
_exptl_crystal_size_max
_exptl_crystal_size_mid
_exptl_crystal_size_min
_exptl_crystal_size_rad
_diffn_measurement_device
_diffn_measurement_method
_exptl_absorpt_correction_type
_exptl_absorpt_correction_T_min
_exptl_absorpt_correction_T_max
_diffn_reflns_number
_reflns_number_total
_reflns_number_observed
_reflns_observed_criterion
_diffn_reflns_av_R_equivalents
_diffn_reflns_theta_max
_diffn_reflns_limit_h_min
_diffn_reflns_limit_h_max
_diffn_reflns_limit_k_min
_diffn_reflns_limit_k_max
_diffn_reflns_limit_l_min
_diffn_reflns_limit_l_max
_diffn_standards_number
_diffn_standards_interval_count
_diffn_standards_interval_time
_diffn_standards_decay_%
_refine_ls_structure_factor_coef
_refine_ls_R_factor_obs
_refine_ls_wR_factor_obs
_refine_ls_goodness_of_fit_obs
_refine_ls_number_reflns
_refine_ls_number_parameters
_refine_ls_hydrogen_treatment
_refine_ls_weighting_scheme
_refine_ls_shift/esd_max
_refine_diff_density_max
_refine_diff_density_min
_refine_ls_extinction_method
_refine_ls_extinction_coef
_atom_type_scatter_source
_refine_ls_abs_structure_details
_computing_data_collection
_computing_cell_refinement
_computing_data_reduction
_computing_structure_solution
_computing_structure_refinement
_computing_molecular_graphics
_computing_publication_material
publ_section_experimental
```

Fig. 1.1.7.1. Initial set of data items considered to be essential in a structure report submitted to *Acta Crystallographica Section C*.

The WPCI proposed the CIF format as a standard exchange protocol at the open meetings of the IUCr Commissions on Crystallographic Data and Computing at the 1990 XVth IUCr Congress in Bordeaux. The proposal was accepted and the CIF format was subsequently adopted by the IUCr as the preferred format for data exchange (Hall *et al.*, 1991).

The administration of the CIF standard, including the approval of new data items, is the responsibility of the IUCr Committee for the Maintenance of the CIF Standard (COMCIFS). This committee plays a central role in the coordination of CIF activities, such as the creation of new dictionaries for defining crystallographic data items and the updating of data definitions in existing dictionaries. Chapter 3.1 describes relevant aspects of its role in the

1. HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

The macromolecular dictionary was built using DDL2 and was presented as a draft to the community at the American Crystallographic Association meeting in Montreal in July 1995. The draft was subsequently posted on a website and community comment solicited *via* an e-mail discussion list. This provoked lively discussions, leading to continuous correction and updating of the dictionary over an extended period of time. Software for parsing the dictionary and managing mmCIF data sets was developed and was also presented on the website.

In January 1997, the mmCIF dictionary was completed and submitted to COMCIFS for review. In June 1997, version 1.0 was approved by COMCIFS and released (Bourne *et al.*, 1997; Fitzgerald *et al.*, 1996). A workshop was held at Rutgers University in October 1997, at which tutorials were presented to demonstrate the use of the various tools that had been developed.

More than 100 new definitions have been incorporated in version 2 of the mmCIF dictionary, presented in Chapter 4.5.

1.1.10. The Crystallographic Binary File

In 1995, Andy Hammersley approached the IUCr with a proposal to develop an exchange and archival mechanism for image data using the CIF formalism. There was an increasing need to record and exchange two-dimensional images from a growing collection of area detectors and image plates from several manufacturers, each using different and proprietary data-storage formats. The project was encouraged by the IUCr and was developed under a variety of working names. In October 1997, a workshop at Brookhaven National Laboratory, New York, was convened to discuss progress and to coordinate the development of software suitable for this new format.

At the workshop, it became apparent that there was broad consensus to adopt and further develop the working set of data names that had been devised by the working group on this project; it was further decided that the relationships between these data names were best handled by the DDL2 formalism used for mmCIF. While image plates were not the sole preserve of macromolecular crystallography, it was felt that there would be maximum synergy with that community, and that the proposed imgCIF dictionary was most naturally viewed as an extension or companion to the mmCIF dictionary. The adoption of DDL2 would not preclude the generation of DDL1 analogue files if they were found to be necessary in certain applications, but to date such a need has not arisen.

However, on one point the workshop was insistent. For efficient handling of large volumes of image data on the necessary timescales within a large synchrotron research facility, the raw data must be in binary format. It was argued that although ASCII encoding could preserve the information content of a data stream in a fully CIF-compliant format, the consequent overheads in increased file size and data-processing time were unacceptable in environments with a very high throughput of such data sets, even given the high performance of modern computers. Consequently, the Crystallographic Binary File (CBF) was born as an extension to CIF (Chapter 2.3). The CBF may contain binary data, and therefore cannot be considered a CIF (Chapter 2.2). However, except for the representation of the image data, the file retains all the other features of CIF. Information about the experimental apparatus, duration, environmental conditions and operating parameters, together with descriptions of the pixel characteristics of individual frames, are all provided in ASCII character fields tagged by data names that are themselves fully defined in a DDL2-based dictionary (Chapter 3.7).

At first sight, the distinction between CIF and the crystallographic binary file may therefore seem trivial. However, in allowing binary data, the CBF requires greater care in defining the structure and packing by octets of the data, and loses some of the portability of CIF. It also precludes the use of many simple text-based file-manipulation tools. On the other hand, the importing of a stable and well developed tagged information format means that developers do not need to write novel parsers and compatibility with CIFs is easily attained. Indeed, the original idea of a fully compliant image CIF has been retained. By ASCII-encoding the image data in a crystallographic binary file, a fully compliant CIF, known as imgCIF, may be simply generated. One could consider an imgCIF as an archival version and a CBF as a working version of the same information set.

1.1.11. Other extension dictionaries

Since the introduction of the major CIF dictionaries, several other compendia of data names suitable for describing different applications or disciplines within crystallography have been developed. Four of these are described in the current volume.

The powder CIF dictionary (pdCIF; Chapter 3.3) is a supplement to the core dictionary addressing the needs of powder diffractionists. The structural model derived from powder work is familiar to single-crystal small-molecule or inorganic scientists. However, the powder CIF effort had the additional goals of documenting and archiving experimental data. It was always intended that powder CIF be used for communication of completed studies and for data exchange between laboratories. This is frequently done at shared diffraction facilities such as neutron and synchrotron sources. The powder dictionary was written with data from conventional X-ray diffractometers and from synchrotron, continuous-wavelength neutron, time-of-flight neutron and energy-dispersive X-ray instruments in mind.

The modulated-structures dictionary (msCIF; Chapter 3.4) is also considered as a supplement to the core dictionary and is designed to permit the description of incommensurately modulated crystal structures. The project was sponsored by the IUCr Commission on Aperiodic Crystals and was developed in parallel with a standard for the reporting of such structures in the literature (Chapuis *et al.*, 1997).

A small dictionary of terms for reporting accurate electron densities in crystals (rhoCIF; Chapter 3.5) has recently been published as a further supplement to the core dictionary. It has been developed under the sponsorship of the IUCr Commission on Charge, Spin and Momentum Densities.

The symmetry dictionary (symCIF; Chapter 3.8) was developed under the direct sponsorship of COMCIFS with the objective of producing a rigorous set of definitions suitable for the description of crystallographic symmetry. Following its publication, several data names from the symCIF dictionary were incorporated in the latest version of the core dictionary to replace the original informal definitions relating to symmetry. The symCIF dictionary contains most of the data names that would be needed to tabulate space-group-symmetry relationships in the manner of *International Tables for Crystallography* Volume A (2002). It is intended to expand the dictionary to include group-subgroup relations in a later version.

Other dictionaries are also under development, often under the supervision of one of the Commissions of the International Union of Crystallography.

Mention should also be made of the use of STAR Files by the BioMagResBank group at the University of Wisconsin to record NMR structures. This work (Ulrich *et al.*, 1998) endeavours to be complementary to the mmCIF descriptions of structures in the Protein Data Bank.

1.1.12. The broader context: CIF and XML

In the light of more recent data-exchange developments, it will be surprising to newcomers to CIF that more use is not made in crystallography of the extensible markup language XML (W3C, 2001). However, the development of CIF predates XML, and the CIF format can be easily translated to and from suitable XML representations. Most current crystallographic software imports and exports data in CIF format and the use of XML only becomes important in applications that cross the boundary of crystallography and involve interoperability with other scientific domains.

At one time, the antecedent of XML, standard generalized markup language (SGML; ISO, 1986), was considered as a candidate for a crystallographic exchange mechanism. SGML is a highly flexible and extensible system for specifying markup languages, but is extremely general. In the late 1980s, successful SGML implementations stretched the capacity of affordable computers and little accompanying software was available. SGML was at that time a suitable data and document tagging mechanism for large-scale publishers, but was far from appropriate for smaller-scale applications. XML was introduced during the 1990s as a specific SGML markup with a concrete syntax and simplifications that resulted in a lightweight, manageable language, for which robust parsers, editors and other programs could be written and implemented on desktop computers. The consequence has been a very rapid adoption of XML across many disciplines. Parallels may be drawn with the decision to implement CIF as a subset of the more general STAR File.

XML provides the ability to mark up a document or data set with embedded tags. Such tags may indicate a particular typographic representation. More usefully, however, they can reflect the nature or purpose of the information to which they refer. The design of such useful and well structured content tagging (in XML and other formalisms) is referred to in terms of constructing a subject or domain *ontology*. This term is rather poorly defined, but broadly covers the construction for a specific topic area of a controlled vocabulary of terms, the elaboration of relationships between those terms, and rules or constraints governing the use of the terms.

In XML and SGML, document-type definitions (DTDs) and schemas exist as external specifications of the markup tags permitted in a document, their relationships and any optional attributes they might possess. If carefully designed, these have the potential to act as ontologies. A simplification that XML offers over SGML is the ability to construct documents that do not need to conform to a particular schema. This makes it rather easier to develop software for generating and transmitting XML files. However, if diverse applications are to make use of the information content in an XML file, there must be some general way to exchange information about the meaning of the embedded markup, and in practice DTDs or schemas are essential for interoperability between software applications from different sources.

Recent initiatives in chemistry, under the aegis of the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC), suggest an active interest in the development of a machine-parsable ontology for chemistry. Building on an existing XML representation of chemical information known as Chemical Markup Language

(CML; Murray-Rust & Rzepa, 1999, 2001), IUPAC project groups are mapping out areas of the science for which suitable DTDs and schemas may be constructed that tag relevant chemical content.

In this context, the CIF dictionaries described and annotated at length in this volume provide a sound basis for a machine-parsable ontology for crystallographic data. Given the orderly classification and relationships between tags in a CIF data set, format transformations using XML tags are not at all difficult to achieve. Chapters 5.3 and 5.5 describe tools for converting between mmCIF and XML formats for interchange within the biological structure community.

In the future, we expect to see the growth of XML environments where the full content of the CIF dictionaries is imported for the purpose of tagging crystallographic data embedded in more general documents and data sets. There have already been examples of ontology development using CIF dictionaries; for example, the Object Management Group has developed software classes for middleware in biological computing applications that are modelled on the mmCIF dictionary (Greer, 2000). The use of interactive STAR ontologies is described by Spadaccini *et al.* (2000).

It is possible that as interdisciplinary knowledge-management software systems develop, the exchange of crystallographic data will occur through XML files or other formats. Nevertheless, CIF will remain an efficient mechanism for developing detailed data models within crystallography. We can confidently say that, whatever the actual transport format, the intellectual content of the dictionaries in this volume and their subsequent extensions and revisions will continue to underpin the definition and exchange of crystallographic data.

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